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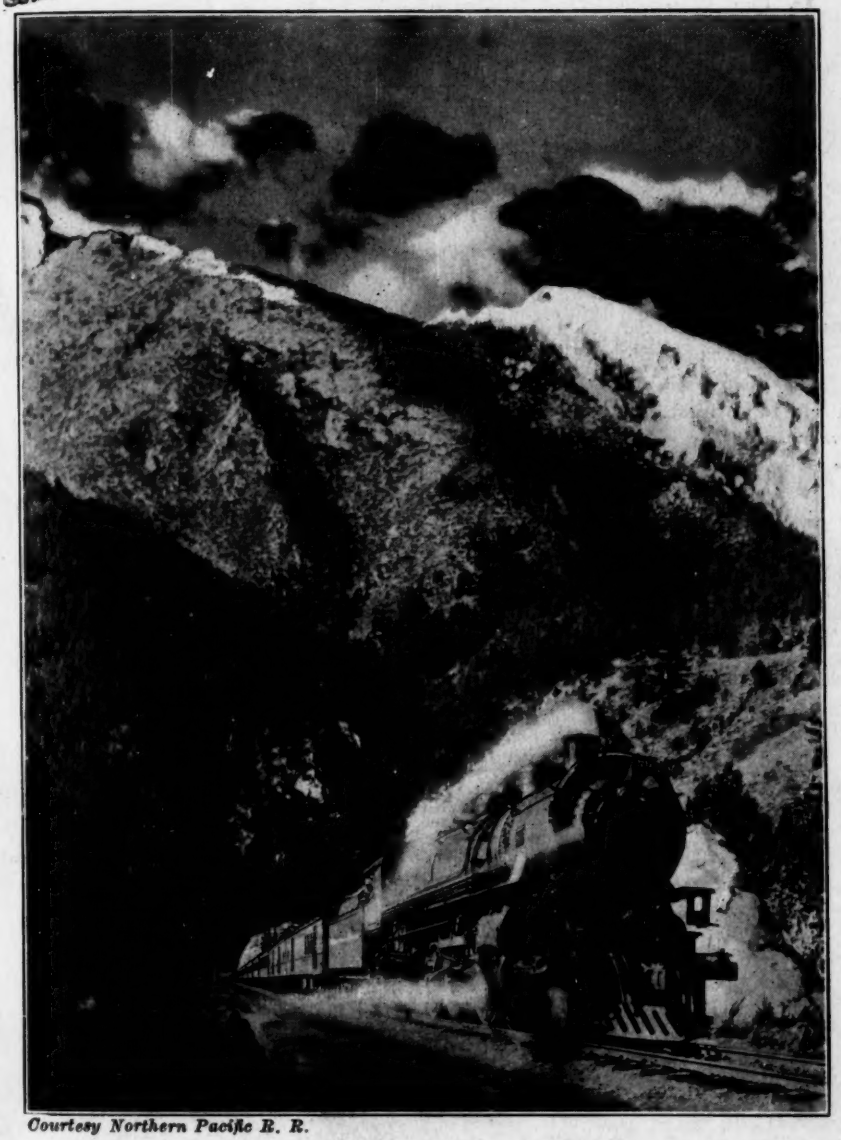

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GEOGRAPHY AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

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THE CURRICULUM

The present curricula of our public schools reflect the cumulative judgment of many generations. Human experiences have been organized and classified. The social inheritance has been transmitted to a succession of generations thru a few major classifications of knowledge, skills and appreciations, known as subjects. As man's achievements have deepened and broadened, the number of subjects has tended to increase. The rapid increase in knowledge during the past half century and the increasing complexity of the social organization are responsible for requests that many additional topics, as thrift, health, safety, accident prevention, fire prevention, and conservation, shall be included in the curriculum. School administrators look with favor upon much of the new materials, but are at a loss to know how to enrich the already overcrowded curriculum.

The curriculum has not only become bulkier thru increase in the number of subjects, but also thru increase in the amount of material provided in each subject. It is admittedly difficult to dispense with topics, however relatively useless they may have become, if they once become entrenched in the curriculum. The easiest line of resistance, too frequently followed, has been to supplement the useless old with the vital new. Every subject, consequently, as an educational tool, has become waterlogged with material of doubtful value.

THE CHILD

In most curricula, tool subjects, as arithmetic and reading, and content subjects, as geography and history, are recognized. When the subjects were being systematically developed, emphasis was logically placed on the objective organization of content. The pupil had to adapt himself to the material. Until recently, the

first book in geography for the grades has been primarily a skeletonized framework for the second book. The bones, a general outline, came first; the flesh, a wealth of appealing details, came later in the grades. Teacher and also pupils came to bow down in homage to subjects.

The present generation marks the shifting of emphasis from the subject matter to the child's latent talents. Mere knowledge, as such, is of little or no educational value. Knowledge, which influences conduct, is educationally significant. Ideals, which will help the pupils to translate their knowledge into desirable activities, should be inculcated. The schools are training pupils, thru activities, to acquire knowledge, ideals, and appreciations, which, in turn, influence subsequent conduct. The curriculum is not considered the great objective of instruction, but merely the agency, thru which the great objectives may be realized. The shift in emphasis from subject matter to the child is largely responsible for the modifications and even radical reconstructions of the curriculum which are now under way.

The Curriculum and Relationships

The curriculum is concerned with relationships. The pupil should gain a knowledge of the following relationships: (1) relationships within his own body, (2) relations to other people, (3) relations to the physical environment, and (4) relations within the physical environment. Both spatial and temporal concepts should be developed. Definite controls should be set up so that experiences of most worth may be had thru studying these various relationships.

These various relationships are provided for, to some extent, in most curricula.

1. Relations within the body—physiology, hygiene. Psychology is commonly neglected.
2. Relations to other people—history, civics, geography.
3. Relations to the physical environment—geography, history.
4. Relations within the physical environment—nature study.

In addition, the subjects, reading, arithmetic, spelling, writing, art, and music, which help the pupil to interpret the content, and to express his intellectual and emotional life, are provided. Geography, in a curriculum which stresses relationships as its core, should hold a prominent position.

TENDENCIES TOWARD THE INTEGRATION OF SUBJECTS

The various subjects have many points of contact. It is recognized that pupils may secure inadequate concepts of many topics if other subjects are not drawn upon for appropriate details. This assistance is usually expressed as correlation, or cooperation. In the field of elementary geography, for example, topics of dominant geographic significance should be selected. Since the aim is to give the pupil a desirable experience rather than academic geography, the teacher does not hesitate, if necessary, to overstep the boundaries of definitionized geography. If the situation remains geographic, it is not because the teacher refuses to teach anything except geography, but because the details necessary to meet the situation are primarily geographic. Not infrequently a teacher of elementary geography will remark, "I do not know whether this is geography, but the children ought to have it."

The teacher attempts to relate the new work to the pupil's interests and experiences. She motivates the work. She is not insistent that aroused experiences shall be geographic as long as they will develop a sympathetic attitude toward the situation to be developed.

Increasing emphasis is placed on supplementary reading. Supplementary readers, magazines, folders, newspapers, and books of travel, contain much geographic material; but frequently the material is interwoven with non-geographic statements. The teacher, guided by the interests of pupils and the social value of the material, discusses the situation rather than the geography of the situation.

In presenting the content of other subjects, the teacher does not hesitate to make use of geographic content. The arithmetic teacher stresses rationalization as well as habituation. Some of the problems are geographic. The history teacher stresses the influence of geographic factors. The nature study teacher stresses the value of natural phenomena to man.

As a general tendency, the changing emphasis in the selection and presentation of curricular material has led to the breaking down of boundary lines among subjects. As a logical outcome, an attempt has been made to reduce the number of subjects by combining those that are closely related. One of the best known groupings is given the caption, "the social sciences."

The popular conception of a social science is an organized body of knowledge that deals with the relations of man to man. This conception includes the history and present status of government, civics, economics, and sociology. Many of the educators have gone a step further and have included geography which stresses the relations of man to his physical environment. One short jump, and nature study, taught with its social implications, also becomes a member of the social sciences. The tool subjects develop special skills that will function in the social sciences. The term, social sciences, carried to the extreme, becomes all-comprehensive, and is merely a synonym for the curriculum. The expression thus loses any special meanings that were formerly related thereto. Much of the loose thinking about the social sciences is due to the fact that the expression has come to have so many shades of meaning that it is practically useless as a specific educational term.

When history involved government, political activities, and to a minor extent, social relations, it was pre-eminently a social science in the restricted sense. Gradually the whole gamut of human activities was included. History has come more nearly to include, thru type selections, some account of the content of all subjects. It has tended to become all-comprehensive.

Some historians have insisted that an account of happenings cannot properly be considered history unless a sufficient time has elapsed to permit an analysis and evaluation that is removed from current events. But the dominant tendency among textbook writers has been to carry the chronicle of events down to the present. The history that contains a picture of the last president of the United States has a distinct advantage over other histories. If history can consistently include an account of everything that ever happened, and if, in addition, history also can consistently include an account of everything that is happening, the devotees of other subjects may candidly admit that they are but specialized historians.

In the field of geography, a consistent point of view, man's relations to his physical environment, has been developed, and an imposing quantity of material has been discovered and organized. In the public school curriculum, present day relations are emphasized; the field of historic geography is left to the history teacher. It may be admitted that a geographic interpretation of people and regions does not describe and explain many important factors

which enter into a reasonably complete picture of human activities. In spite of this shortcoming, geography, to a greater extent than any other subject, develops notions concerning the present distribution, relations, and adjustments of man. If the curriculum should be revised with emphasis on an understanding of the conditions under which individuals live today, geography has a richer immediately available content than any other subject.

When the student engages in out-of-school activities, he does not gauge his activities in terms of subjects. He draws on all of his relevant available experiences, irrespective of the subjects involved, to meet the situation that challenges him. If usefulness rather than comprehensive knowledge is the criterion for the selection of curricular material, it is barely possible that graded normal life situations rather than subjects should be the basis for the selection and organization of content materials.

Considering the present tendencies of educational thought and achievement, it is desirable that experiments should be carried on to seek to determine whether content should be taught thru subjects or thru situation units which blend the content of different subjects in any proportion necessary to meet the conditions. The extremists in curricular reconstruction take the viewpoint that even the tool subjects can be best taught incidentally in connection with situation units. Arithmetic, for example, need not be formally taught, but may be taught as needed in connection with life situations. The standpatters take the viewpoint that the present subjects have evolved thru racial experience and have special contributions to make. Progress can be made more assuredly by progress within each subject rather than thru a blend of subjects. The views of the middle group tend to shade into the views of the extremists and standpatters. Perhaps more frequently, this group approves the formal teaching of the tool subjects, but tends to combine the content subjects under the heading of health and hygiene, nature study, and the social sciences. Geography especially, and frequently history are not given special subject recognition.

Attempts to work out a unified course of study for the social sciences are fraught with many difficulties and dangers. Manifestly the program will break down to the extent that it does not provide for the fundamental values now realized thru the various subjects. Both spatial and temporal concepts should be developed.

To be sure, longitudinal history can be unfolded in relation to spatial concepts, but how can latitudinal history be so related? Are we prepared to scrap latitudinal history, that is, a rough chronological account of the past leading to the present? Should some sort of general account of the past be presented so that the pupil can project longitudinal history more intelligently and more appreciatively into the past? Is it possible to organize the situations so that they will be graded psychologically and so that they will also systematically unfold the valuable social inheritance? Can the content be presented so that the tendency of the mind to systematize knowledge for effective retention will be cared for? Can the child be developed in such a way that he will experience no permanent handicap when he studies subjects later in his educational career?

Numerous educators have shown, by sampling, the possibilities of this field. But no one has succeeded in integrating the content of the various so-called social subjects so as to present a comprehensive, unified, and graded curriculum. The fact that this has not been done is no necessary indication that it cannot be done. Those who believe in social studies should continue to experiment, but further experiments should involve a comprehensive course of graded units.

With the social studies program in its present imperfect and uncertain state of development, what course should our public schools, in general, pursue? Even granting that integrated social studies will finally supplant geography, history, and political science, is the time ripe for taking this step? The answer should be influenced by the fact that suitable textbooks and supplementary materials are not available, that it has not yet certainly been demonstrated that such a curriculum, properly emphasizing the values of the different subjects, can be constructed, and that inadequate data are available to determine whether the sum total of experiences acquired thru the unit situations adopted in some schools, is of greater value than the sum total secured thru separate subjects.

It is pedagogically unsound to adopt and attempt to put into execution a new course of study with the sublime faith that the need for equipment will prompt authors and book companies to supply it. The syllabus adopted should also definitely provide the minimum equipment necessary for satisfactory results. Both

the syllabus and the equipment then will be further refined thru use. It is a pedagogical mistake for a teacher with one book, a desk copy, perhaps a pamphlet on transportation, to attempt to teach the topic to a group of junior high school students.

In favor of geography, history, and civics, it may be said that excellent textbooks and supplementary materials, and comprehensive unified syllabi are available. If evolution rather than revolution is the desideratum in taking the next step in curriculum reconstruction, the administrator is taking an advanced step if he ascertains the proved values which can be realized thru social studies and then studies the different subjects to discover whether these values can be realized thru geography, history, and civics. In revising the syllabi for the different subjects, all the principles of curricular reconstruction that have been applied to the social studies should be considered. Usefulness of content should be the dominant criterion. Provision should be made for the acquisition of skills, the development of ideals and the carrying on of activities. Relative values should be considered. Methods of procedure should be analyzed. Suitable textbooks, maps, globes, and other equipment, should be provided. A plan for testing should be presented. If each subject is thus studied, not only will the curriculum as a whole be materially strengthened, but the best possible preparation will have been made for possible integrated social science work.

It is evident, from the preceding analysis, that the curriculum should be a dynamic organism. Two curricula should be constantly before the educational forces, (1) the curriculum that can be efficiently administered under present conditions, and (2) the ideal curriculum as a basis for guidance in revising the practical curriculum.

In curriculum reconstruction, what opportunities are presented to educational geographers? In the first place, they should strive to make the geography course of study as nearly perfect as possible. They should clarify aims, establish definite educational outcomes, select content with increasing care, evaluate methods, provide suitable equipment, and devise adequate tests. They should have a comprehensive unified program extending thru the elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. The National Council should continue to exercise leadership in keeping geography teachers active along these various lines.

It is admittedly somewhat dangerous for a national organization to approve a detailed curricular program to the exclusion of all other programs. The content of geography can be arranged in a curriculum in so many workable ways that specific conclusions of the National Council are bound to be somewhat dogmatic and arbitrary.

On the other hand, the geography curriculum is in a somewhat chaotic condition. What is nobody's business is everybody's business, as shown by the numerous doubtful plans that are being proposed. An approved curriculum will have a desirable restraining and uplifting effect in many places. The prestige of the organization, with a standardized program, will help to arouse greater appreciation of the subject. Perhaps the cause of geography will be helped most if the National Council, without reference to specific grades and quarters, will specify and approve the general content that should be provided in a general way for the first six grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school. A remarkable step forward can thus be made. Teachers will then be free to work out more carefully the details for these levels.

In the second place, geographers cannot afford to hold themselves aloof from any honest endeavor that is being made to improve the general curriculum. Especially is it incumbent on geographers to participate in any such movement that involves their subject. Many schools are initiating a social science program. Many educational leaders are friendly to this movement. Irrespective of their beliefs, geographers should heartily cooperate in this experiment, and attempt to secure a proper emphasis of geographical studies. The question is not whether they believe in separate subjects or in integrated social sciences. Many schools, especially the junior high schools, are teaching social sciences as an assumed desirable unit; many schools are teaching geography as a separate subject. The National Council of Geography Teachers should attempt to secure proper recognition of geography in each type of school.

THE NECESSITY OF ACCURATE KNOWLEDGE ABOUT PLACES

DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY
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THE NECESSITY OF A KNOWLEDGE OF PLACES

All geographical knowledge is of necessity associated with some *place* on the earth's surface. All historical knowledge has of necessity its geographical setting in its association with some *place* on the earth's surface as well as with some *time* in man's historical progress. Any attempt to teach geography or history without definite and specific place relationships must prove inadequate. We frequently hear the earnest request that geography be divorced from a *mere* study of *places,* and that history be divorced from a mere study of *places* and *dates.* These requests, if properly understood, are entirely appropriate, but the suggestions are too often interpreted to mean that geography is to be made interesting and fruitful *without* the serious and definite study of *any places,* and that history is to be vitalized without frequent and accurate reference to *any places* or *any dates.* The path of progress lies in the middle ground, between the teaching of geography and history *solely* thru places and dates and the teaching of geography and history without places and dates.

True knowledge of places comes, not with a mere acquaintance with the name and location, but with a knowledge of name and location linked with an accurate and comprehensive knowledge of the geographic or historic significance of the place. A keen appreciation on the part of the teacher concerning the geographic significance or historic significance of places will assure proper selection of places appropriate for special study in geography and history. This will serve also as a safe guide in the selection and presentation of *suitable facts* to be associated with important places in the study of geography and history.

A KNOWLEDGE OF PLACES FUNDAMENTAL IN LEARNING GEOGRAPHY

A knowledge of places is as essential in the study of geography as a knowledge of the fundamental arithmetical processes in the study of arithmetic. As an accurate knowledge of these arithmetical processes is the foundation stone of progress in the study of mathematics, so an accurate knowledge of important places in geog-

raphy becomes the foundation stone of progress in the study of geography. As a permanent mastery of the forty-five number facts of addition and the sixty-four number facts of multiplication form an indispensable basis for progress in the learning of arithmetic, so the permanent mastery of a fairly well defined group of place geography facts forms an indispensable basis for progress in the learning of geography.

As a sure and instant knowledge of the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, and their precise order in the alphabet, is necessary to effective use of the dictionary, the card catalog, and all other alphabetic lists, so a sure and ready knowledge of a group of important places and their locational relationships thruout the world becomes essential to the effective use of books, periodicals, and newspapers by the ordinary, well-informed reader. Neither custom nor necessity has provided so definite a list of places for mastery as the letters of the alphabet; neither is so fixed and unalterable a list necessary or desirable. A suitable basic list of places may be provided, however, by the teacher, individually, or in cooperation with other teachers, or by extensive and comprehensive examination of the usual requirements of the study of geography in the elementary school and junior high school.

THE LEARNING AND THE TEACHING OF PLACES

Two phases of schoolroom educational activity which have not, as a rule, been clearly perceived in their relation to each other and in relation to the mental development of the child are the *learning process and the teaching process.* The distinction between these two processes should be clearly perceived by the teacher and applied to the school work in the presentation of place geography. It is a common experience for the faithful teacher to do her best to *teach* the places indicated by the course of study, or by the textbook, or from her own carefully selected list, only to discover that the pupils have not *learned* the essential facts which she aimed to teach. Teaching and learning are processes intimately related in the presentation of any school subject. "We cannot learn for another: yet we may be able to teach another how to learn..... There is no inconsistency in maintaining on the one hand that many teachers teach too much, and in maintaining on the other that teachers do not do enough in the way of helping their pupils to learn."[1]

If pupils are led to develop an abiding interest in learning about places for themselves, and if they are shown how to learn about places by careful and effective use of maps in the textbook, the use of atlases, gazetteers, dictionaries, and other sources, the learning process will be raised to a higher level in the estimation of both teacher and pupil, and the teaching process will be so related to the learning process that the results will be distinctly more effective than if either of these processes is emphasized to the unwarranted subordination of the other. Results will improve as pupils realize that they are being taught, or shown, how to learn about places by their own efforts, how to select significant facts worth knowing and worth remembering, how to relate the newly acquired facts to knowledge already acquired about the same places or other related places.

WHAT CONSTITUTES KNOWLEDGE OF A PLACE?

The knowledge of a place in geography should be adapted to the interest and mental ability of pupils who are learning about the place. The amount of knowledge concerning New York City exacted of pupils in third or fourth grade, when this place may first appear in their geography work as a city thru which they pass in a journey lesson, should differ widely from the amount and kind of knowledge exacted of seventh or eighth grade pupils when the same city is being interpreted geographically in its relation to the United States as a whole, and in relation to foreign countries and cities. A certain aversion to the study of place geography seems to have developed from the idea that the knowledge concerning a place has been exhausted by the answers to two questions: (1) "What is it?" (2) "Where is it?"

From this point of view, the content of a study of New York as a place would be completed by learning that: "New York is a city at the mouth of the Hudson River." This knowledge concerning New York City is essential in the study of the city, but it is not all-inclusive. As the knowledge that "five twos are ten" is capable of immediate and effective application to numerous mathematical problems, so the knowledge that "New York is a city at the mouth of the Hudson River" may be of immediate and effective application in the organization of information gleaned from the geography lesson, from books and periodicals, or from the experiences of travel. In these instances, the basic arithmetical fact and the

basic geographic fact are not ends in themselves; both are essential, however, to safe and sure progress in their respective fields of knowledge.

What, then, constitutes an adequate knowledge of a place as a topic of study in common school geography? The question may be answered briefly by saying that a pupil should learn of each important place: (1) Name. (2) Location. (3) Important geographic facts.

The name of the place is essential in every case, and this knowledge should include the ability to pronounce and to spell the name correctly. The knowledge of the location of a place is essential to any clear concept of the place as an object of consideration. Knowledge of location should always be definite and accurate, however limited that information may be in amount. The statement that "New York City is located at the mouth of the Hudson River" reduces the knowledge of name and location to its lowest terms. The knowledge of the name, however, is as complete and comprehensive for the third grade pupil, using it in his journey lesson, as for the advanced student of geography, making an extensive investigation of the advantages of the location of the same city. The essential knowledge of the name is incapable of expansion. Knowledge of location, however, is capable of wide expansion, for location may be considered from many points of view. The location of New York City may be expressed in terms of latitude and longitude, or its location may be given with reference to its position in New York State; with reference to the Hudson River, New York Bay, East River, and other water bodies; with reference to three large islands and the mainland; with reference to transportation routes to New England and to the interior of North America; with reference to ocean routes and foreign lands; and with reference to many other items of geographic application. A comprehensive knowledge of the location of a place involves many "important geographic facts." As soon as the pupil has definitely learned the *name* of a place, and the *location* of the place, in the more limited sense, he has only the starting point, the foundation whereby his knowledge and study of the place *begins*, not where the study *ends*. To this acquisition of name and location he should add at once such "important geographic facts" as are suitable to the educational purpose which has called for a knowledge of the name and the location of the place. The third or fourth

grade pupil, passing thru New York City on the journey to the coffee plantations of Brazil, will learn with keen interest and with a high probability of permanent retention that he is visiting the largest city in the United States; that he has come to New York to sail to South America because New York is a great shipping port; that most of the people coming from foreign countries to make their homes in the United States arrive at New York City. These and other important facts of New York City will enter into the journey lesson as a matter of course. This information becomes foundation knowledge to which to relate added facts about New York City, year after year, as such items of information come from geography lessons, general reading, travel, or other sources.

The seventh or eighth grade pupil, making a special study of New York City in its relation to world geography, may be expected to expand and to organize his knowledge of the location of the city and the important geographic facts of this world commercial center into a comprehensive visual image of the city in its relation to the United States and the world. The special maps,[2] the pictures, and descriptive matter concerning New York City provided in the "advanced" geography textbooks indicate the importance attached by authors and publishers to a knowledge of this one *place* in a study of geography.

The amount and nature of the knowledge that may be acquired about a large and important place, such as New York City, are without limit. If we consider the question: "What constitutes an adequate knowledge of a place as a topic of study in common school geography?" from the point of view of a study of selected places for definite consideration in the course of study, we may extend the three items already given as follows:

1. Name, including pronunciation and spelling
2. Location, to be given with sufficient fullness and accuracy to enable another person to find it promptly on a map
3. Such geographic facts as the importance of the place warrants. This should include, as a minimum, one or two items of sufficient value to justify the name in a selected list of places for use in the elementary school or junior high school.

Progress in the study of geography does not require that the interest and attention of teacher and pupils be turned away from the consideration of the names and locations of places, but rather that interest and attention be carried a step farther, and that

teacher and pupils learn to associate with name and location interesting and valuable geographic facts. As an instant and accurate knowledge of the multiplication table is necessary in expediting the financial transactions of daily life, so an instant and accurate knowledge of the names and locations of places is necessary in the daily accumulation and organization of fragments of knowledge coming into the pupils' minds as they study the geography lesson, read current news, talk with friends, or travel.

It is neither necessary nor desirable that pupils' minds be stocked with a long list of names and locations of places for future use. The mere name and location are of little or no value unless "important geographic facts" promptly enter into the chain of associated ideas. The haziness of the knowledge of location frequently found among pupils who have studied a region, or a continent, seems to grow out of the teacher's desire to present more interesting and more appealing geographic information than that of location. This desire is laudable and necessary for progress in the study of geography. It is accomplished, however, not by omitting, or touching lightly, this necessary link in the chain of associated ideas concerning the place, but by adding to the first links—*name* and *location*—a long chain of valuable geographic ideas about each important place, firmly welded to these basic concepts—name and location.

The term "locational geography" is sometimes used to designate a study of names and locations of places. If the study of places is limited to these two ideas concerning places, it becomes mechanical, uninteresting, and valueless. Only as other ideas of value are added, is a genuine knowledge of places being developed. The term "place geography," as used in this study, refers to a knowledge of locational geography and something in addition. This additional knowledge is to be firmly associated with the facts of locational geography and not separated from them. The *amount* of additional knowledge thus to enter into the association of ideas will be determined by the needs of the pupils in geography lessons, or in other experiences.

The Real Problem

The proper teaching of place geography does not call for new materials nor for new methods of presentation. It does require, however, that the teacher recognize that a knowledge of places as

indicated in this discussion is an indispensable part of geographic knowledge, not to be separated from the rich content of the subject of geography, but to be interwoven into all the learning of geography by the pupils as a fundamental and permanent mental possession. The study of place geography offers exceptional opportunity to develop in pupils the ability to learn thru their own initiative. The individual unit for study, *a place,* is so definite that the starting point is clear to the pupil. He knows that his searching leads in the right direction. He knows that the resources of the schoolroom and library furnish a variety of avenues for investigation. He has opportunity to learn much or little, depending upon his interest, his initiative, and his perseverance.

Let the opportunity be given in proper relation to the regular geography work. The classroom work of the elementary school and junior high school may well aim at a specific knowledge of several hundred places, perhaps a thousand, or more, by the close of the systematic geography work in the junior high school.

In a later article, a proposed list of place names, compiled impersonally from geography textbooks will be offered for consideration.

[1] John Adams, Modern Developments in Educational Practice, p. 152. University of London Press, Ltd., London, England, 1922.

[2] See detailed maps of New York City on large scale in: Barrows and Parker, United States and Canada, p. 8; Brigham and McFarlane, Essentials of Geography, Second Book, p. 85; Frye-Atwood, New Geography, Book Two, p. 30; McMurry and Parkins, Advanced Geography, p. 52; Smith, Human Geography, Book Two, p. 174; Tarr and McMurry, New Geographies, Second Book, opposite p. 66.

THE HUMAN SIGNIFICANCE OF MATURITY OF A PLAINS REGION

RODERICK PEATTIE
Ohio State University

Maturity of topographic development of a plains region implies a maximum degree of slope land. Relatively little of the upland plain which marks youth remains and a relatively small part of the old age plain near the levels of the rivers has not yet been constructed. The characteristics of maturity, and of early, middle and late maturity, are too well known to need further detailing here.[1]

TRANSPORTATION AND SETTLEMENT IN EARLY MATURITY

With the advent of early maturity in a region, most of the waterfalls and rapids disappear from the larger streams. Consequently they frequently have long reaches which are navigable. Wagon roads as well as railroads are on the divides. As maturity advances the size and number of streams increase and transportation in the larger valleys improves. Roads descend to the valley flats but railways are found on the lowlands at an earlier stage than are the wagon roads. The farm house in the earlier stages are on the uplands. The railways cannot stand the heavy grades necessary to cross valleys and so follow the stream courses, tunneling where necessary thru the divides. The farms are connected with the railway station by a road which has at least one bad grade. By late maturity, all main roads are located in valleys, for here are found the farm establishments. Tho there may be certain uplands cultivated, these are small and isolated.

The farther the maturity of erosion is advanced the greater the percentage of better farm lands to be found at the lower level. By mid-maturity tributaries gnawing their way back so dissect land that it becomes hilly and too rough for farming. These uplands are given over to forests or utilized for grazing, while valley bottoms are cultivated. Valleys with flood plains and gently sloping walls form regions that are inviting to settlement. The alluvial flood plains of mid-maturity provide excellent "bottom" lands. In late maturity when valleys are still wider and slopes are gentler, slopes culture prevail. Houses are built part way up the slopes for thus floods are avoided and drier ground obtained thru better drainage. Frequently the houses are so located as to be near the

center of farms which extend from valley bottom to divide. With the settlement of such regions by a number of people comes the development of towns.

TOWNS IN EARLY MATURITY

These towns develop along the larger valleys often at the junction of tributary valleys, making the town a center of converging

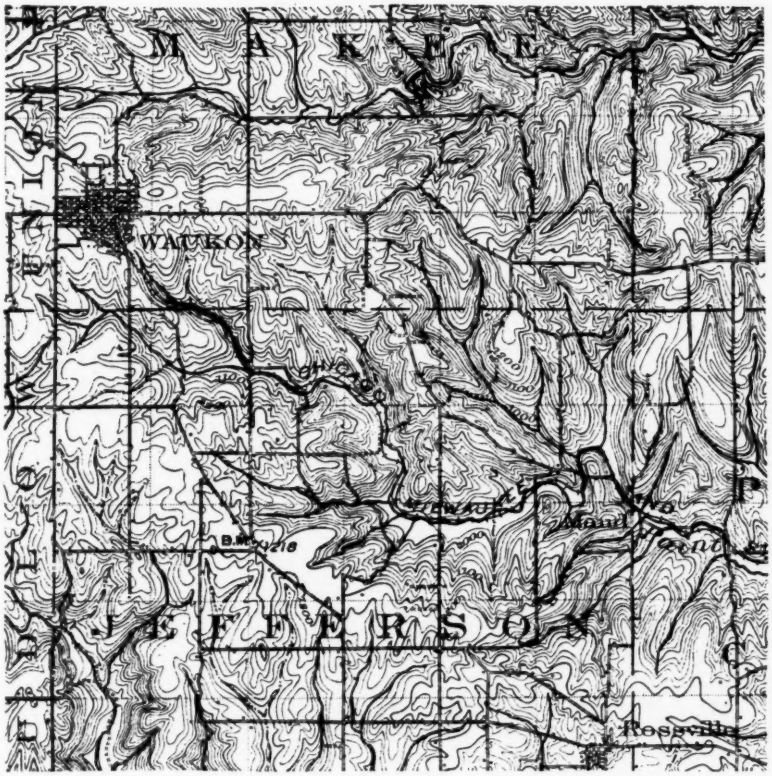

FIG. 1. Maturity. Railways tend to descend from the upland before the wagon roads do. Wagon roads in this region experience heavy grades. (U. S. G. S. Waukon Quadrangle, Iowa. Scale 1/125,000. Contour interval 20 feet.)

highways. Also the valley sites furnish flats for the development of the towns. At three points in Tennessee the Mississippi River swings against uplands on the eastern side of its valley and forms bluffs. Here Fulton, Randolph and Memphis were early established. Along the middle course of the Illinois River every important river town is situated on the edge of a terrace. Such

terrace sites are high enough to be healthful and free from floods, but not so high as to make loading and unloading from boats difficult. Towns on the upper Ohio, originally built on terraces, have grown so that they have spread to surrounding uplands and have developed an additional residence section apart from the business section on the lower level. Steubenville, Ohio, is an example. As

FIG. 2. Mid-Maturity. Roads exist upon both upland and lowland. Tho there is but 300 feet difference in the elevation between the plains, each has its own community organization. (U. S. G. S., Laurelville, Quadrangle, Ohio. Scale 1/62,500. Contour interval 20 feet.)

changes come with passing years in towns of such location, a new business district may be developed in the upper section to care for the needs of the people living there. Still later this becomes the principal part of the city containing the better class of people, while the older part on the lower level deteriorates or becomes purely industrial. Such changes have occurred at Cincinnati.

PLAINS OF CONSIDERABLE ELEVATION

Plains of considerable elevation may have such a degree of ruggedness during early maturity that density of population is discouraged.[2] Towns do not grow to any appreciable size and railroads are not developed unless the region has valuable resources. Such lack of communication has a decided effect on the

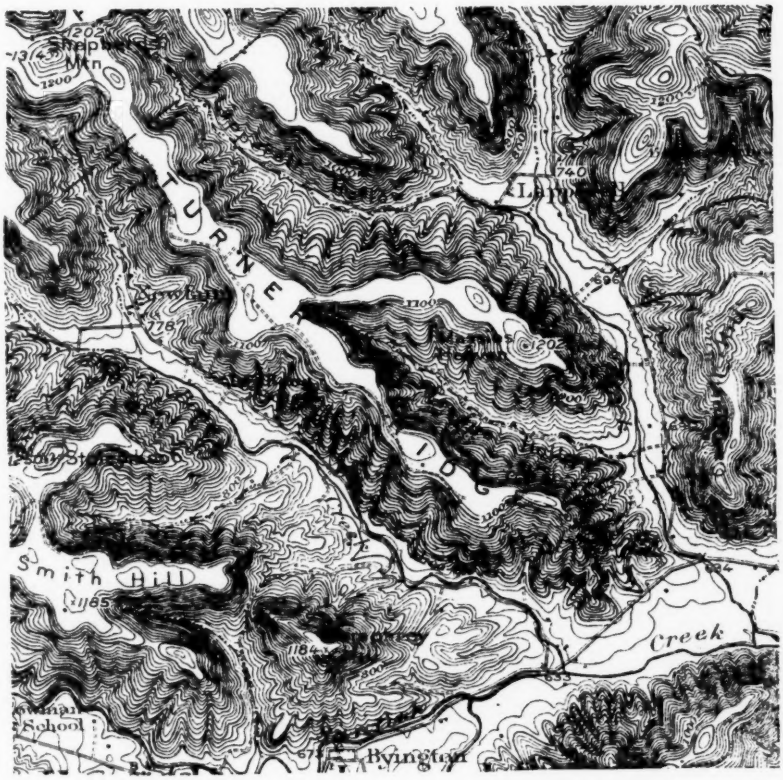

FIG. 3. Mid-Maturity. There is here something like an equal amount of upland plain and lowland. The farms occupy the lowland plain for here the level gradient is continuous (which it is not in the case of the upland), is of fertile alluvium, and is more accessible. (U. S. G. S., Bainbridge, Quadrangle, Ohio. Scale 1/62,500. Contour interval 20 feet.)

life of the people. Typical of such areas is the region west of the base of the Appalachians. Houses are so widely scattered that inhabitants are greatly isolated and suffer consequent effects. In parts of Kentucky and Tennessee one may travel for five or ten miles without seeing a habitation. Certain counties of Tennessee contain many square miles without a dwelling. Living conditions

are naturally primitive. Within valleys settlements develop which are distinctly clannish in customs. Development is prevented along many lines possible in regions more thickly settled, and the result is a monotonous type of life. An additional factor contributing to the solitude of some of these places lies in the fact that many of the uplands and slopes are forested and these lands have been acquired by lumber companies who discourage farming. Where there are valuable minerals, as coal in southeastern Ohio, transportation advances the culture of regions which would otherwise be distinctly backward.

MIDDLE AND LATE MATURITY

A change of conditions of living develops in farming regions of middle and of late maturity. At such a stage, valley bottoms are much more desirable agriculturally than hill lands, resulting in slow differentiation among the people. The thrifty, progressive persons acquire the fertile valley farms and those less industrious own the poorer lands of the hills. As such differentiation continues the contrast between the people in the valleys and those back in the hills is very sharply drawn. Social problems result from such a condition and the owners of the poor hill farms and their laborers form an inferior class. The hill farmer can cultivate only part of his land. His fields are small and uneven, and require hard labor. The hilly nature of the country renders it more liable to erosion, especially when kept pulverized by cultivation. Soil on a hill farm is poor, frequently eroded, and requires more tilling. The production per acre is also less than the valley farmer obtains for less work. But these are not all of the hill farmer's disadvantages. When his produce must be taken to the market, he has farther to go and a more difficult route to travel. Poor transportation facilities shut the door to better markets. Such conditions result in a gradual withdrawal of land from profitable use and the consequent increase in acreage of abandoned farms. Five counties of the hilly plain of southeastern Ohio in a recent ten-year period show a loss of one acre of improved land for every thirteen acres tilled.

Because of the precarious economy of hill farms within six counties of southeastern Ohio much of the land is in the hands of a few owners. This soil monopoly gives to a majority of farmers an insufficient acreage for support of families. The smaller and poorer farms are in the possession of tenants. They must turn

everything marketable into immediate cash. Consequently very little is given back to the soil for replenishment of exhausted strength.

Tenant farmers follow crop rotation in a haphazard and unscientific fashion. The bottom lands produce well after long years of cultivation, but hill lands must be fertilized after two or three

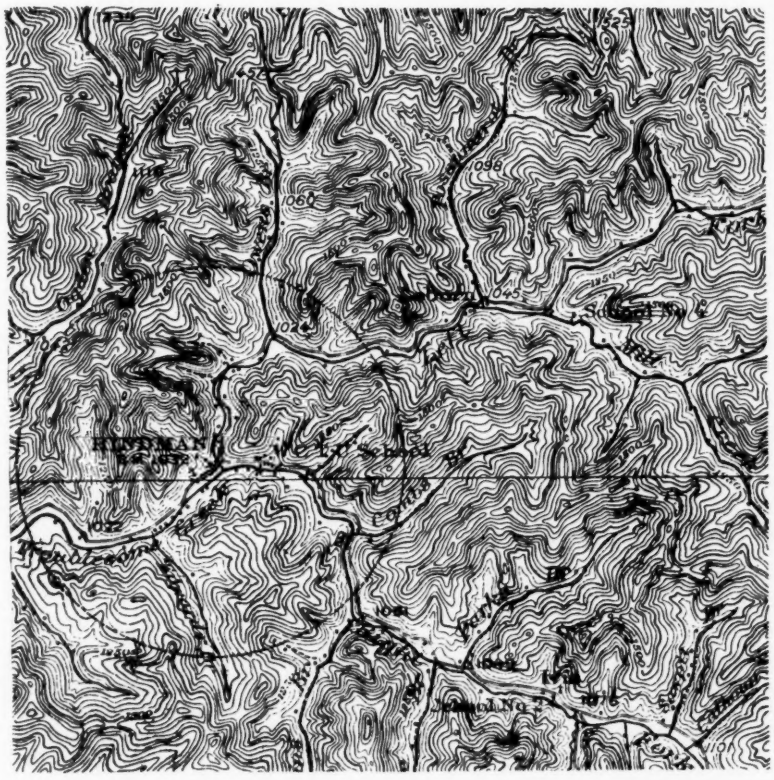

FIG. 4. Mid-Maturity. Here there is none of the upland plain remaining and little or no true flood plain. Communication follows the creek bottoms and there is no cross country travel. There are about four houses to the square mile, not including the three settlements. (U. S. G. S., Hindman quadrangle, Kentucky. Scale 1/62,500. Contour interval 50 feet.)

years. Also the bottom land owners are better able to buy fertilizer and to practice a crop rotation which does not give the largest immediate returns.

COMMUNITY INTERESTS

The degree of maturity which a region has reached is reflected in its community interests. In regions of early maturity the topog-

raphy has retarded the development of a genuine county consciousness. As a consequence of this, social life centers within rather small units. One county in the eastern part of central Pennsylvania in a region of early maturity, has a rural population of 15,000 in an area of 480 square miles, and contains 31 distinct rural communities. Each community has a general store, a post office,

FIG. 5. Late Maturity. This illustrates slope culture in a region of late maturity. Woodbury is located where the river swings against the valley wall. (U. S. G. S., Little Muddy Quadrangle, Kentucky. Scale 1/62,500. Contour interval 20 feet.)

a school and one or more churches. With an extensive highway system, this county has but 10 per cent of its roads improved. A county of approximately the same area and rural population in Maryland in a region developed to late maturity shows a tendency among its population to form much larger communities. The county has assumed a very considerable importance and cooperative associations have been developed. Schools, roads, and en-

forcement of order are administered for the county as a whole. In the Pennsylvania county, farm business is conducted on the basis of the individual farmer. The interests of the individual center on his family and immediate neighborhood and cooperative enterprises have made little headway.

Similar contrasts are shown in the schools of these two counties. In the county of Pennsylvania the condition of the roads and the uneven topography are partly responsible for the fact that little consolidation of schools exists or is contemplated. Many schools consist of merely one room, unattractive as to both interior and exterior. Very few high schools exist outside of larger towns. Pupils are lax in attendance and have slight advantages as only the traditional curriculum is taught. School surveys show that the same conditions exist in the hill counties of southeastern Ohio. The county in Maryland, where so little of old upland is left that one community is readily accessible to another, shows children being educated in modern consolidated schools.

A difference in the problems of the church also presents itself in mature regions. Religious surveys of southeastern Ohio shows that a multiplicity of communities and divergence of opinions result in a great number of impoverished churches. The condition of the church reflects directly the economic conditions of the people of the region. People who live on the poor hill farms have scant means for the support of the church. This results in the necessity of a circuit of churches having one minister, and thus a great proportion of churches have non-resident leaders. With the increasing emphasis upon pastorial functions of ministers this non-residence becomes a problem much greater than when public worship occupied a large part in religious life. Churches do not thrive on absent treatment and certain problems present themselves with the decline of the churches. This is not exclusively a problem of regions of early and middle maturity but the resulting effects are more strongly marked in such isolated areas.

[1] The material for this article has been taken from geographical and sociological studies too numerous and scattered in nature to be given here as a bibliography. The data are but in a small part original.

[2] The eastern edge of the Allegheny Plateau is here referred to as a plain. It in no way has the mountainous proportions by which one is accustomed to identify a plateau.

REFLECTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY

II. THE PLACE OF HISTORY IN EVALUATING GEOGRAPHIC INFLUENCES

W. S. DAKIN
Hartford, Connecticut

Geography should be taught from the social point of view. The best texts are written to emphasize the human element in all studies of the world and its life. Without minimizing the importance of natural conditions, it is believed that in temperate zones, at least, the human element is the deciding factor in a given area. Comparing two similar geographic regions, both equally favorable for human occupation or both equally inhospitable, the largest control of environment and the most prosperous community will be found in the region inhabited by the most energetic human stock.

Geography, then, can be treated as an account of the constant action and reaction that has been, and is, taking place between man and his environment.

At some particular times, and in some locations, it may seem that man is already pretty well in control. At another time, and in another situation, it will be evident that society is still profoundly influenced by geographic factors, earth conditions.

The progress of science and invention seems to free us from bondage to our environment. In many ways we do become independent. The rigor of winter no longer causes us to cease all labor. The electric light has extended our working hours and periods of mental activity far beyond what they used to be. On the other hand, transportation and the resulting competition in production have centered agriculture, mining, and manufacturing in those places where climate, soil, natural deposits, and other favoring geographic conditions make such business most profitable.

NECESSITY OF HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Unless the observer and student has perspective, his judgments on geographic-social relations will be warped and unreliable. Furthermore, by confining children to the geography of a given period of time they may never acquire that appreciation of change which is inherent in life. These changes may or may not always agree with our ideas of progress. Nevertheless, pupils should

learn that change is inevitable, that in general it should be welcomed, that we should seek, in the facts and influences about us, tendencies and not mere static conditions to be learned as such and cataloged in memory for life.

For us, American geography began with the settlement of the Atlantic colonies. From that time onward, men in increasing numbers have been striving, generation after generation, to make for themselves homes in the new world. They struggled against a harsh climate and a rocky, forest covered soil. They at first found but few natural resources that could be converted into wealth or used in any way.

Recalling the history of our country we can see how, in the beginning, the early settlers took advantage of every favoring circumstance. The rivers and inlets were their roads to the interior. In the natural meadow lands they sought their first harvests. Often they subsisted on game and forest products until land could be cleared. Utilizing the power of small streams, the colonists ground their corn and sawed their logs. Little by little, they gained some control over their environment and learned new ways of adapting themselves to it. Especially was this so when, with the surplus farm products sent in ships built from native timber, the colonists began to trade with one another, with the West Indies and with Europe.

The application of steam to transportation, and the changes resulting from this greater mobility of goods and people increased the demand and opportunities for manufacturing. It stimulated the search for and use of natural resources such as minerals, coal, oil, timber, and new farm lands. Masters of local environment to a considerable degree, the American people began to attain that broader phase of life where they were influenced by, and compelled to share in, the control of environments far removed from the borders of their own immediate territory.

Many states, and eastern Canada as well, are vitally interested in the coal mines of Pennsylvania, in the iron ore of Michigan, the copper of Montana, Utah, and Arizona, the oil deposits of the Pacific Coast, the cotton of the Southern States, and the wheat of the Middle West. Frequently, details of local geography have now merely an historical value. Seen as stages in the development of a region, these facts are useful. But unless properly interpreted they may be positively misleading. New England is a manufac-

turing region. Why? Many will say because it has numerous streams affording good water power. That condition once was influential. But it is no longer important.

Pupils should be taught the story of geography with due reference to values, to distinguish between factors historically operative and those now effective. Try to present the changes in living and working conditions so that pupils may see them as a natural result of man's effort to find himself thru his environment.

Geography, unlike history, can never be taught as a series of completed events and established facts. Influences, operating powerfully at one time in a given region may by applications of science and better human adjustment, become negligible fifty or even twenty years later.

Some Objectives in Geography Teaching

We should, therefore, try (1) to present with proper evaluation, the historical background of geography, recall and compare conditions then and now for regions studied; (2) to train pupils to acquire a tentative attitude toward environmental influences; (3) to help pupils organize their stock of geographic facts and concepts so that it will be easier for them to anticipate and accept change—the more gifted pupils may even be given some practice and skill in detecting tendencies and suggesting ways of directing change; (4) to point out the growing dependence of all peoples on constantly increasing areas—other states, other countries.

III. CHILDREN'S INTERESTS IN GEOGRAPHY

The Importance of the Human Element

The proper approach or introduction to geography is very important. On his introduction to the subject will depend the child's interest and his capacity for growth in power to assimilate and use geographic facts and principles.

Failures in Teaching Home Geography

The most commonly accepted beginning is thru the so-called "home geography." This may mean anything from a study of local streams and hills to a discussion of what we eat and wear, and how father plants his garden. To begin with, home geography may be an attempt to act upon the old maxim of, "Proceed from the concrete to the abstract," or the maxim, "Go from the known to the unknown." Maxims like these may have a real psycho-

logical foundation, but too frequently they are interpreted in the logic of an adult mind, and with a literalness that is reasonable but not practical.

Interest in geography and the desire to know what lies beyond the horizon is a phase of curiosity, the desire for change, for something new, not an instinct but a stage of growth, the craving for stimulation that comes from sense satisfied with the familiar.

The real geographers in adult life are the explorers, the pioneers. To introduce a child to the study of geography we must appeal to this wonder, this interest in the beyond. Children's crusades are no longer in vogue; to lead the school in a glorious expedition across the fields to new scenes is not practical. But in spirit, at least, this is what we must do. This point of view can never be secured by the teacher whose lesson begins with the child's own back yard and a map of the all too familiar school yard.

THE EMPHASIS SHOULD BE ON SIMILARITIES

The other extreme must be avoided whereby the teacher plunges at once into accounts of strange people who live in ice houses or those who dress in silks or wear next to nothing and live in bamboo bungalows. Striking as such things may seem to an adult, nothing is strange or impossible to the child. For him, like all primitives, the border line between the real and the fanciful is vague and ill defined.

How are people roused to interest in travel and a desire to visit far countries? By travelers' tales, by stories of adventure, by stray curios, and bits of handiwork from abroad. Such stories, however, must be in terms that the hearer can understand, the emphasis must be, not on the unique, but on the similarities; the essential likenesses among peoples and places near and far away.

It is enough at first to learn that beyond the horizon there are whole villages and cities of peoples. It is more interesting and credible at first to know that they play and work and live in many ways as we do. Instead of emphasizing the wooden shoe of the Hollander why not dwell on the games of Holland, the skating, the abundance of cattle, and the neat clean homes of this country. With pictures and descriptions, let the children discover some of the differences for themselves.

In other words, make the approach to geography a series of stories showing the existence of other children and noting their

likenesses. The differences will be discovered soon enough and often persist long after they have ceased to be valuable. In fact, one of the most serious criticisms of geography teaching is the present misunderstanding that educated adults show for citizens of foreign countries. Trained in a geography that stressed difference, it is almost impossible for many of us to realize that the Chinese can have abilities and desires like our own and that the thick-bearded Russian may be a skilled mechanic or a superior artist.

IV. REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

Objections to Political Units

In attempting to organize the content of geography for teaching purposes, we are confronted with several problems and many possible solutions. A conventional organization has been continental land masses with their political subdivisions. Such a plan is at least logical and for the traveler it may be adequate. For the child learner it usually involves much useless repetition with confusion and consequent lack of sustained interest. For the student of geography, it is highly unsatisfactory since it fails to develop, except incidentally, the relation between environment and human life. Furthermore, such an organization by political units is artificial, as the political boundaries and colonial dependencies may be radically changed at short notice as was the case at the close of the World War and previously during the Napoleonic Wars. In every great struggle between nations, boundaries change, capitals change, even the names of cities frequently are altered.

Necessity of Limiting the Field

To determine a satisfactory basis for organizing the study of geography, it will be necessary to agree upon a statement of the particular scope the subject is to take and its place in relation to other studies in the curriculum. A familiar and accepted definition of geography has been, "Geography is a study of the earth as the home of man." This definition has been helpful in eliminating much material that pertained to pure science. It has justified us in emphasizing human and economic factors. It has stimulated the gathering of much useful and highly interesting material on such subjects as how men live in various parts of the world and why. It has directed a study of the effects of climate on human energy, the effect of soil, surface, and rainfall on man's occupations, dwellings, and customs. But as a basis for the or-

ganization of subject matter the definition of geography, as a study of the earth as the home of man, puts too much emphasis on what is, after all, of secondary importance, namely, the earth.

OBJECTIONS TO SOME BASES FOR DELIMITING REGIONS

Starting with the above thesis we seek to divide the earth's surface into units similar in their climatic conditions or in their production or in their surface features. Such a plan represents, it is true, a considerable advance over the former political organization but the general plan mentioned above is weak in several particulars.

1. It may be highly superficial. Geographers are less sure than formerly of the influences exerted by environment. Once it was the fashion to seek in their residence the causes of outstanding personal characteristics of a people, like the Swiss: to explain the mysticism and fatalism of the Orient by climatic conditions, and exposure to gigantic disturbances of nature such as floods, earthquakes, and tornadoes.
2. Regional organization based on production, such as the cotton region, corn region, and so forth, may represent a transitory and changing phase of human adjustment.
3. Regional organization as now practiced is often arbitrary and seldom if ever is there agreement among authorities as to the proper basis. It has been suggested that regions be determined by those features of the environment that for a given area have most influenced the dwellers therein. In one section it might be surface, in another altitude, in another soil, and so forth.

All of the attempts at geographic organization based on the conception of the earth as the home of man must necessarily deal with some plan for dividing up the earth's surface into units of one kind or another.

Why not free ourselves from these limitations by defining geography more exactly in the terms we really wish to use. With this aim in view the following is suggested: "Geography is a study of peoples in their world-wide efforts to control or adapt themselves to their environments."

NEED OF HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

This definition permits us to use in an attack on the problem some historical perspective. With this definition the mutual rela-

tion of geography and history becomes evident, reasonable, and useful. Environmental influence interpreted from current conditions only is liable to be misleading. Here an historical review of human conditions in a given area presents a truer or at least a more likely estimate of the natural causes really operating. History, too, gains by this mutual study. Our attempts to understand the primitive life of ancient times will be much more successful if we can use present-day geographic studies of the various stages of human progress still to be found in many parts of the world.

Since the definition of geography as a study of the people of the world in their efforts to adjust themselves to their environment gives us a truer and more natural approach to the study of the subject, it may likewise give us the key to a better organization of content.

It is suggested that as a basic principle, regions for the intensive studies of peoples be those wherein environment operating for a long period of time has developed a real community of interest and somewhat stable likenesses in the occupations, customs, and modes of living practiced by the people.

To determine regions on this basis will involve a certain study of historical background to eliminate transitory and superficial effects. Just as it may take a newly forested area more than a century to become stabilized, that is to determine which species will survive (are best adapted), so it probably requires many generations, perhaps centuries, to determine just what effects earth conditions may have on the inhabitants of a given section.

Community of interest, too, is a long time in developing and will finally be determined by earth conditions, surface, valley transportation routes either by water or easy gradients for land transportation and by mutual dependence on earth products. As implied above, to determine regions on this basis will take time and a careful comparison of historic facts and earth factors, but such a study may lead the way toward a dependable organization of subject matter for the study of peoples in their struggle with environment.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR AN ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

Geography taught on a basis of political units involves a wasteful amount of repetition and frequently leaves even the best pupils with only an unorganized mass of memorized facts. The products,

exports, imports, and characteristics of one country often vary from another only in a few particulars.

OBJECTIONS TO POLITICAL UNIT ORGANIZATION

The task of listing and learning for each of the many countries, their leading cities, ports, and populations, consumes much of the time available for world study. Another weakness has been the abrupt breaks in continuity of thought and interest, when colonial possessions are grouped with the controlling country for teaching purposes. Such content brings about abrupt shifts from temperate to tropical life. Continental organization usually brings with it the same grouping, repetition and abrupt change, as when we study tropical life of South America, the temperate life of the Argentine, and again in Africa repeat the process with a few non-essential changes for the Congo basin and the southern tip of the continent.

OBJECTIONS TO REGIONAL ORGANIZATION

Attempts to organize geography on the basis of similar climatic conditions have been made and do tend to reduce repetition and bring out some principles of man's relation to climate and topography.

ORGANIZATION BASED ON STAGES IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Why not, while teaching geography, recognize the fact that vestiges and even whole periods in the historical development of the human race, can be found at the present time in some part of the world? With this point in mind geography can be used to illuminate history and furnish examples of practically all stages of civic development. Beginning in the lower grades teach about primitive peoples the world over as found in Central Australia, in the Amazon basin and Central Africa and the Arctic regions; our objective will be the study of man in his efforts to adapt himself to his surroundings at each stage in his development. Such an aim is far more worthy than a systematic inclusive survey of the earth's surface within any given period of which the variety of adaptations may be so numerous as to confuse young students.

Study of primitive peoples always interest little children. The reading material, the construction possibilities, and the picturesque side of such life always make an appeal. The historical beginnings of our own country could be touched upon at this time

by showing how the surviving primitive peoples of today face almost exactly the same problems of living as did the Indians of long ago.

The next stage for world study might well be lives of nomadic peoples including, besides the Arabs, many sections of northern Africa and a large part of central Asia. These peoples represent a higher stage of progress and thus present opportunities for interesting and varied comparisons and discussions regarding the relation of environment to progress and modes of living. The study of these nomadic peoples might also help to interpret the migrations and conflicts of ancient times.

Another group of peoples worthy of special study is the agricultural group, those dependent solely on the cultivation of the soil. This group would include dwellers in the Nile valley, the scores of millions along the Ganges and a large part of the peoples in south eastern China with parts of other sections of the world.

The fourth group might be commercial peoples, those living along the borders of oceans and large seas and maintaining their existence by trading, and easily gathering and exporting natural resources, such as timber, mineral products, and sea food. This group includes certain peoples of western South America, parts of Africa, and some of the large archipelagoes.

A final group would be the industrial peoples as found in such highly organized sections as western Europe, North America, and parts of Australia.

Value of This Organization

To secure the greatest values from such an organization, teachers constantly must have in mind civic and historic relations. There must be continuous reference to globes and world maps. The continent and the political organizations called countries are but incidents and not fundamental to a knowledge and appreciation of geographic factors in human life.

The possibilities of an organization like that indicated above can never be realized thru study of the usual text. The material must be presented thru readings collected from books, periodicals, stories of travelers, and trips to museums.

The opportunities for individual and group contribution are unlimited. The formulation of problems based on comparisons, likenesses and contrasts, and on inferences drawn and verified from data collected becomes simple and natural as the work progresses.

SUMMER COURSES IN GEOGRAPHY

The following educational institutions sent data of summer school work in Geography.

University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. June 21—August 27

Geographic Influences in American History. Dr. Brown
Geography of the Great Plains. Dr. Brown
Geography of Latin America. Dr. Brown
Principles of Human Geography. Dr. Brown
The Teaching of Geography. Dr. Brown
Geography of North America. Dr. Brown
Conservation of Natural Resources. Assistant Professor Toepelman
Climatology. Mr. Hoffmeister
Advanced Physiography. Professor Worcester
General Geology. Assistant Professor Toepelman and Professor Worcester
Field Geology. Mr. Hoffmeister and Professor Worcester
Historical Geology. Mr. Hoffmeister
Paleontology. Assistant Professor Toepelman
Courses at Science Lodge. Historical Geology; Field Methods; Ore Deposits; Geologic Surveying; Mineralogy; Lithology; Introduction to Petrography; Petrography; Micro-Mineralogy. Professor McCourt and Assistant Professors Gibson and Sperry

Field Courses in Geology. Headquarters are at Science Lodge, adjoining the University Camp, near the Continental Divide, and about twenty-five miles from Boulder. The cost is $120.00 each term, including all expenses. Students desiring to register should consult with Professor Walter E. McCourt, by mail or in person before June 16 (address Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, until June 13, after that date, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado). Courses are offered to three types of students: beginners, advanced and graduates. The last five days of each term are devoted to a trip thru the Rocky Mountain National Park.

State Normal School, Lewiston, Idaho. June 7—August 6

The Teaching of Geography. Professor Ernest E. Holmes
Principles of Geography. Professor Ernest E. Holmes
Teaching of Geography in Primary Grades. Professor Ernest E. Holmes
Geography of Idaho. Professor Ernest E. Holmes

Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill. June 28—July 30

The Teaching of Geography in the Elementary Grades, 1-6. Frederick K. Branom
The Teaching of Geography in the Junior High School. Frederick K. Branom
Geography of North America. Ira N. Van Hise
Geography of Europe. Ira N. Van Hise
Geography of Africa and Australia. Alyda C. Hanson
Industrial and Commercial Geography. Alyda C. Hanson

University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. June 21—July 28; July 29—September 3

Elements of Geography (for Senior College Students). Professor Wellington D. Jones
Economic Geography (for Senior College Students). Assistant Professor Robert S. Platt
Human Geography. Professor Helge Nelson (University of Lund, Sweden)
Conservation of Natural Resources. Professor Harlan H. Barrows
Comparative Regional Geography (Europe and North America). Professor Helge Nelson
Geography of Asia. Professor Wellington D. Jones
Geography of Australasia. Assistant Professor M. W. Senstius
Historical Geography of United States. Professor Harlan H. Barrows
Geography of Soils. Assistant Professor Senstius
Political Geography. Assistant Professor D. S. Whittlesey
Field Course in the Green Bay Region. Assistant Professor Platt

An intensive course of training in geographic field methods and in the application of geographic principles to a region of particular interest. Four weeks will be spent in the field beginning June 21. First Term.

Field Chorography. Assistant Professor Whittlesey

A small area of geographic diversity will be investigated intensively, with the object of producing on the ground a completed monograph in the field of regional geography. Area tentatively for 1926 lies in Upper Connecticut Valley. Five weeks will be spent in area. Prerequisite: Green Bay Field Course or equivalent. Second Term.

Research Course. Professors Barrows and Jones, Assistant Professors Whittlesey, Platt and Senstius
Dissertations in Geography. Professors Barrows and Jones, Assistant Professors Whittlesey and Platt
Investigations of Problems in the Teaching of Geography. Assistant Professor Edith Parker
e333A The Technique of Teaching Elementary Geography. Assistant Professor Parker
e333B The Technique of Teaching Elementary Geography. Assistant Professor Parker
Organizing Geographical Material for Elementary Schools. H. M. Leppard
The Teaching of Geography in Junior and Senior High Schools. H. M. Leppard

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. June 21—August 14

Physiography and Geology
Industrial and Commercial Geography. Assistant Professor Albert LaFleur
Geographic Influences in American History. Assistant Professor Albert LaFleur
Mineral Resources of the United States. Professor U. S. Grant
Field Course in the Lake Superior Region. Professor U. S. Grant

Open to men who have completed at least a year's course in geology, but more work than this will be an advantage. The course will begin about August 13 and will last four weeks. A detailed report will be required. Graduate students may obtain graduate credit and may secure material for Masters' theses. Tuition for all students for this field course is $50. For further information address Professor U. S. Grant, University Hall, Evanston, Illinois.

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

First Term. June 14—July 23
Physiography (two sections). Ruth McDill
Principles of Geography (two sections). Esther L. Knapp
Commercial Geography. Parker M. Holmes
Geography of North America. Leland S. Paine
Geography of South America. Leland S. Paine
Geography of Europe. Esther L. Knapp
Lower Grade Methods (two sections). Mabel P. Crompton
Upper Grade Methods. Dr. Robert G. Buzzard
Mathematical Geography. Dr. Robert G. Buzzard
Conservation of Natural Resources. Mabel P. Crompton
Influences of Geography on American History. Dr. Robert G. Buzzard

Second Term. July 26—August 28
Principles of Geography. Esther L. Knapp
Commercial Geography. Harley P. Milstead
Lower Grade Methods. Neva McDavitt
Upper Grade Methods. Neva McDavitt
Geography of Europe. Esther L. Knapp
Advanced Physiography. Harley P. Milstead
Political Geography. Beatrice Gibbs

Geography of Illinois. 2200 miles by auto bus studying surface conditions, soils, native vegetation, uses of the land, influences of climate, transportation, industries, mining and cultural conditions. Party will carry full camping outfit and chef, stopping at tourist camps. Complete study of state of Illinois. Two major credits of elective geography when detailed field study is filed. Class limited to twenty. Cost about $130. July 24—August 7. Dr. Robert G. Buzzard.

University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. June 21—August 14

Geography of Europe. Associate Professor Blanchard
Geographic Aspects of Transportation. Associate Professor Blanchard

Indiana State Normal School, Eastern Division, Muncie, Ind.

First Term. June 21—July 24
Principles of Geography. Professor Lora Baker
Physiography. Professor Lora Baker
Economic Geography. Alice Bundy
Geography of North America. Alice Bundy

Field Geography and Physiography. A field course in geography and physiography in the Eastern States. Important centers of field study: Niagara Falls, Mohawk Valley, Lake Champlain district, Green Mountains, White Mountains, Boston, Cape Cod, Connecticut Valley, Hudson Valley, New York City, Philadelphia, Water Gap of the Susquehanna, Allegheny Front, and

Pittsburgh district. The party will travel by auto bus with camp equipment. Estimated cost of five weeks trip—$180.00. Professor Fred J. Breeze

Second Term. July 26—August 28
Methods and Materials in Geography. Professor Fred J. Breeze
Physiography. Professor Fred J. Breeze
Geography of North America. Alice Bundy
Economic Geography. Alice Bundy

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans. June 9—July 17

Elementary Physical Geology. Associate Professor C. J. Posey
South America. Associate Professor C. J. Posey
Field Course in the Canon City Embayment, Colorado. Associate Professor W. H. Schoewe
A five weeks' course beginning June 11; credit 5 semester hours (detailed report required). The first four weeks are devoted to a detailed study of Garden and Shaw Parks, 13 miles north of Canon City. Mapping is done by means of the telescopic alidale and plane table. The last week of the course is given over to inspection trips to places of interest such as Royal Gorge, Cripple Creek, Mining District, Pikes Peak, Garden of the Gods, Golden, Rocky Mountain National Park, and Araphhoe Glacier. The cost is approximately $150. Students interested should consult Dr. Walter H. Schoewe by mail or in person before June 1.

State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans. May 31—July 30

Physiography. Miss Roseberry and Mr. Flottman
Industrial Geography. Mr. Flottman
Geography of American History. Miss Roseberry
Geography in Primary Grades. Miss Roseberry
Geography in Grammar Grades. Miss Roseberry
Commercial Geography. Mr. Flottman
Regional Geography. Mr. McFarland
Human Geography. Mr. McFarland
Geography of Europe. Mr. McFarland
Current Geography. Mr. McFarland
Supervised Teaching in High School. Eulalia E. Roseberry and Claude O. McFarland

Western State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Ky. June 7—August 13

Teachers' Geography. Miss Jeffries
Physiography of the United States. Mr. Wilson
Geography of Kentucy. Miss Jeffries
Geography of Latin America.
Geographic Factors in European History.
Principles of Geography. Mr. Wilson

State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich. June 28—August 6

Geography of Europe. Professor Ella M. Wilson
Applied Geography. Professor Ella M. Wilson
Principles of Geography II. Margaret Sill
Principles of Geography I. Walter M. Henson
Commercial Geography. Walter M. Henson

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. June 21—July 31

Human Geography. Associate Professor Davis and Assistant
Geography of Commercial Production. Associate Professor Davis and Assistant

State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn. June 9—July 21

Elements of Geography. (Two sections). George J. Miller, Cora P. Sletten, and Assistant
Geography of North America. George J. Miller
Geography of Europe and South America. Cora P. Sletten

University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo. June 8—August 4

Geography of North America. Associate Professor Sam T. Bratton
Principles, Content, and Methods. Associate Professor Sam T. Bratton
Seminar and Research. Associate Professor Sam T. Bratton
Field Course in Geology. Assistant Professor Jas. S. Williams

All field courses in geology will be given at a field camp to be established near Yellowstone National Park. Courses begin about June 15 and continue for eight weeks. Courses include (1) practice in the use of field instruments, (2) describing and mapping of geological formations, and (3) collecting and studying fossils and rocks. Opportunity also will be offered students who desire to work upon advanced problems. Estimated expense for eight weeks, $150.00. For further information write Professor Williams.

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.

First Term. June 7—July 14

Principles of Geography. Associate Professor Lackey
Introduction to Economic Geography. Professor Bengtson
Geography of Nebraska. Associate Professor Lackey
Regional North America. Professor Bengtson
Latin America. Professor Bengtson
Educational Geography for Teachers in the Elementary Schools. Associate Professor Lackey
Seminar for Graduate Students. Geography Staff

Second Term. July 15—August 20

Principles of Geography. Esther S. Anderson
Geography of the Land. Professor Bengtson
Geography of the United States. Esther S. Anderson
Economic Geography of the United States. Professor Bengtson
Geography of Nebraska. Esther S. Anderson
Geography of Europe. Professor Bengtson
Research. Geography Staff

Saturday field trips will be taken each term to study The Loess Plains, Loess Hills, Kansan and Nebraskan Glacial Drift, and The Lower Platte Valley.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. July 3—August 13

Physical Geography. Professor O. D. von Engeln
Commercial Geography. Professor O. D. von Engeln
Climatic Regions of the World and their Significance. Associate Professor Visher
Teaching of Geography: Methods, Devices, Content, Emphasis, Materials. Associate Professor Visher
Geology. Professor Decker
Mineral Resources. Professor Decker
Physical Geography, Laboratory Course. Professors Leighton, Brotherhood, and Miss Van Order
Geology, Laboratory Course. Professors Leighton, Brotherhood, and Miss Van Order.
Geography and Geology, Field Course. Professors Leighton, Brotherhood, and Miss Van Order

Field Course. The environs of Cornell are rich in phenomena of geographic and geologic interest. The field course consists of nine excursions on which Taughannock Falls, Enfield Glen, Connecticut Hill, Watkins Glen, Niagara Falls, Lake Ontario, and the Thousand Islands are visited. The longer excursions come at week-ends and may be taken by students who are doing course-work in other subjects.

Columbia University, New York City, N. Y. July 6—August 13

Physical Geography and its Economic Aspects. Professor Frank J. Wright
Geography of Asia. Frederick K. Morris
Geography of North America. Professor Frank J. Wright
Geographic Delineation and Map Interpretation. Frederick K. Morris
Mathematical Geography. Dr. Clement S. Brainin
Field Work in Physiography (June 12—July 3) (Western Region). Associate Professor Armin K. Lobeck

Description of course in Field Work in Physiography: Practical field work in Physiography before the opening of the Summer Session in some of the great scenic regions of the west, including Pike's Peak, Garden of the Gods, Rocky Mountain National Park, Yellowstone Park, and Glacier Park. The trip occupies three weeks of travel by train and automobile, and is intended to acquaint the student with the essential features of the Great Plains and the Northern and Southern Rocky Mountain Provinces. Leave Chicago, June 12; return to Chicago, July 3, to New York, July 5.

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. June 14—August 13

Geography and Environment. Professor C. E. Cooper
Geography of North America. Professor C. E. Cooper
Geography and Method, Upper Grades. Professor C. E. Cooper
Geography and Method, Lower Grades. Assistant Professor Jane K. Atwood
Geography of Production and Distribution. Assistant Professor Jane K. Atwood

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. June 16—August 4

Geology and Physical Geography Field Course. Professor George D. Hubbard

Students participating in this course work from a camp near Narrows, Virginia, in the complexly folded and faulted Paleozoic rocks, live in tents, make topographic and geologic maps, structure sections, collect and study rocks and fossils, and write a report describing and discussing the geology of the area, under the personal supervision of one who has given such a course almost annually since 1911, and eight summers in this vicinity. No detailed work has ever been published on this area. Expenses including tuition, subsistence and laboratory fees, but not transportation, about $115.

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. June 21—July 30

Environmental Elements. Dr. McConnell
Principles of Geography. Dr. White
Geography of North America. Dr. McConnell
Economic Geography. Dr. White
Regional Studies. Dr. McConnell

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. July 6—August 14

Geography of Eastern United States. Assistant Professor H. F. James
Geography of Western United States. Assistant Professor H. F. James
Manufacturing Industries of the United States. Assistant Professor W. R. Hockenberry
Courses in Method and Demonstration Lessons in the Teaching of Geography. Grace F. Martz

University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. July 12—August 23

Geography in the Elementary School. Dr. Grant Finch
Principles of Geography. Dr. Grant Finch
The Geography of South America. Dr. Grant Finch
The Supervision of Geography Work. Erna Grassmuck
Geography and Our Mineral Resources. Professor Somers

Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. July 6—August 14

Principles of Human Geography. Dr. Richard Hartshorne
Geography of European Countries. Dr. Richard Hartshorne
Economic Geography. Ellsworth D. Elston
Geography of United States and Canada. Ellsworth D. Elston
Teaching Geography in Grades 7 and 8 (Junior High. Daily demonstration lessons). Margaret Smythe
Teaching Geography in Intermediate Grades 4—6 (Daily demonstration lessons). Edna B. Gray

Study Tour of Pennsylvania. From August 16 to August 28, a study tour by automobile will be conducted over Pennsylvania. This course will include the interpretation of the physical, economic, and other aspects, of the geography of Pennsylvania and will be particularly valuable for teachers of Grade Seven.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. June 7—August 27

Geography of the Lands (5). Dr. J. E. Switzer
Climate and Man (4). Dr. A. E. Parkins
Economic Geography: United States (5). F. W. Cox
Economic Geography: Foreign Contries (4). F. W. Cox
Geography for the Early Elementary Grades (4) Lucile Foust
Geography of North America (4). F. W. Cox
Geography of Europe (4). Dr. J. E. Switzer
The Geography of World Problems (4). Dr. A. E. Parkins
Conservation of Natural Resources (4). Dr. J. E. Switzer

Geographic Influences in American History (4). Lucile Foust
Materials and Methods in Geography Teaching (4). Dr. A. E. Parkins
Seminar in Geography (2). Dr. A. E. Parkins

Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Tex. June 9—August 20

Regional Geography. Professor Kennamer
Geography of the South. Professor Kennamer
Elementary Geography Methods. Professor Kennamer
Geographic Problems. Professor Kennamer

Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Tex. June 9—July 19; July 20—August 28

Geography of North America. First Term, Second Term. Assistant Professor Edwin J. Foscue
Economic Geography of South America. First Term. Assistant Professor Edwin J. Foscue
The Teaching of Geography in the Elementary School. Second Term. Assistant Professor Edwin J. Foscue

Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex. June 1—August 21

College Courses. First Term.
The Geography of Texas. Professor Harriet Smith
Business Geography, First Unit. Professor Harriet Smith
Elements of Geography. Professor Harriet Smith

College Courses. Second Term.
The Geography of the South. Professor Harriet Smith
The Geography of Europe. Professor Harriet Smith
The Teaching of Geography in the Elementary Grades. Professor Harriet Smith

Pre-College Courses. Both Terms.
Principles of Human Geography. D. H. Fischer
Commercial Geography. D. H. Fischer

University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. June 28—August 6

Geography of South America. R. H. Whitbeck
Principles of Geography. R. H. Whitbeck
Geography of Europe. Oscar Schmieder
Principles of Physiography. Oscar Schmieder
Geography of Asia. Glenn T. Trewartha
Climatic Factors in Geography. Glenn T. Trewartha
Economic Geography of North America. John W. Frey
Geography of Foreign Trade. John W. Frey
Elements of Geology. Guy Harold Smith
Geography of Wisconsin. Guy Harold Smith
Weather and Climate. Eric Miller
Research Problems. Staff
Field Course at Devils Lake, three weeks beginning August 9. Guy Harold Smith
Field Trip to Rocky Mountains, June 14 to July 5. A. K. Lobeck

Milwaukee State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis. June 21—July 30

The Teaching of Geography. Harvey A. Uber
Geography of Europe. Harvey A. Uber
Economic and Commercial Geography. Harvey A. Uber

State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis. June 21—July 30

Principles of Geography. H. O. Lathrop
Methods in High School Geography. H. O. Lathrop
Commercial Geography. W. C. Fischer
Conservation of Natural Resources. H. O. Lathrop
Overseas Commerce. W. C. Fischer
Rocky Mountain Field Course. W. C. Fischer

Commencing August 3, 1926, the Whitewater State Normal School and the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association offer a field trip thru the Southern Rockies. The trip commences at 3:30 P.M. of that day from St. Paul and closes August 18. The trip covers 4,300 miles and is estimated to cost $169.00. Written report necessary for credit. For further information, write W. C. Fischer, Whitewater, Wisconsin, or E. G. Doudna, Madison, Wis.

STATE COUNCIL NEWS

The Geography Council of Oregon held two sessions at the December meeting of the State Teachers Association. Their program consisted of an illustrated lesson in geography, a talk on map interpretation and a travelogue on Australia and New Zealand. Warren D. Smith, whose recent articles on Oregon and on the Philippines have been noted in the *Journal*, is a director of the Council.

The Geography Section of the State Teachers Association of Texas has been consolidated with the State Geography Council. Geography in the Texas schools should benefit from this union of forces of which L. G. Kennamer of Abilene Christian College is the enthusiastic secretary.

Dr. J. Paul Goode of the University of Chicago lectured at the last Minnesota Geography Council meeting.

R. H. Whitbeck of the University of Wisconsin, and George J. Miller, Editor of the *Journal of Geography*, were speakers at the annual meeting of the Wisconsin Geography Council in November.

GEOGRAPHICAL NEWS

Announcement of the gold medal awards of the American Geographical Society was made in New York in December, 1925. These awards were made to the following people.

Louis Rico Pation for "scientific achievement in the field of geography of the southern hemisphere."

Erich von Drygalski for his work in the South Polar regions.

General David L. Brainard for his notable achievements on the Lady Franklin Bay Expedition.

Captain Robert A. Bartlett for his services to Arctic exploration.

Pedro C. Sanchez for his contributions to Mexican cartography.

Harvey C. Hayes for his invention of the Sonia Depth Finder.

Lucien Gallois for his notable contributions to the history of geography and for his interpretation of the spirit of geographical science.

Plans are being formulated for water carriage on the Upper Mississippi between Minneapolis and St. Louis. Barges operated by tugs are to be built by a private corporation, but operated by the Federal Government thru the Inland Waterways Corporation. A new type of tug is to be built, and the draft of the boats will probably not exceed three and one-half feet.

Of what value is the acquisition of a resource if the home consumption of that resource does not increase, if other resources for its utilization are not available, or if outside markets fail to take it or the products manufactured from it? Such problems as these are still confronting the French since the acquisition of Lorraine iron ores. France needs Ruhr coke, Germany needs Lorraine iron. France emerging from an unimportant pre-war position in international trade in iron and steel, with little chance to increase home consumption, needs German markets for this excess production of iron and steel. The mutual dependency on an economic basis between Germany and France must be established before France can utilize its iron ores which are claimed to be more than 57 per cent of Europe's total iron resources. The location and character of these ores, their relation to the manufacture of iron and steel, problems associated with their utilization—these are topics presented in this historical and technical study: **French Iron and Steel Industry.** Trade Information Bulletin No. 367. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. 42 pp., Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 1925. 10 cents.

Announcement of the preparation of an Economic Atlas by O. E. Baker and J. Paul Goode was made at the December meeting of the Association of American Geographers. The task is an enormous one and will require several years for completion.

Minnesota wool growers are encouraged by the fact that Rayon silk manufacturers are finding that Minnesota wool fibers blend well with the cellulose used in their silk production.

The scientific interests of the present age are frequently illustrated in modern advertising. As an example, *Progressive Arizona* (Tucson, Arizona), a monthly magazine—the official organ for the Auto Club of Arizona—contains in its December number an article on the sodium sulphate deposits at Camp Verde. Three years ago, Western Chemicals, Inc., began commercial operations at this site and are furnishing sulphate to glass and paper manufacturers. This sulphate is acid-free, an essential in pulp manufacture from highly resinous woods characteristic of the South. Suspicions are afloat that potassium salts similar to those of Stassfurt, Germany, may underlie the sodium deposits.

Artesian water conservation in North Dakota is under state law, the administration of which is in charge of the State Water Geologist, Howard E. Simpson. According to this law, the discharge of every well must be controlled in order to safeguard for the future the pressure and flow of the wells of the Dakota Artesian Area. Artesian water is one of the most valuable resources of the agricultural and livestock industries of the state.